

**IDENTIFYING THE CHANGES IN THE QUALITY OF LIFE OF SOUTHERN
AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC) MIGRANTS IN SOUTH
AFRICA FROM 2001 TO 2011**

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

By submitting this mini-thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch university will not infringe any third part rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

Worldwide people migrate to improve their quality of life (QOL) and there are two frequently asked questions about these migrants. Are these migrants satisfied with their decision to migrate, and has this move resulted in an improved QOL? (Olgiati et al. 2012). Various factors are at play when answering these questions. This article determines if the QOL of Southern African Development Community (SADC) migrants in South Africa and the provinces has improved or deteriorated from 2001 to 2011. Data was extracted from Census unit records from Super-Cross and variables were grouped into socio-demographic, socio-economic characteristics, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service-delivery dimensions of QOL. The study firstly used Excel to calculate percentages and create figures to compare the 2001 and 2011 socio-demographic profile results. Secondly percentages were standardised by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation and a factor analysis was performed on the socio-economic, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service-delivery variables to determine the most important variables influencing the QOL of SADC migrants. Lastly, a mixed-model repeated-measures ANOVA with province and year as fixed effects, and municipalities as random effect was calculated to determine if statistically significant changes occurred in South Africa and the provinces from 2001 to 2011. Findings show an improvement in the socio-economic, ownership of household goods and service-delivery dimensions of QOL for SADC migrants in South Africa from 2001 to 2011, while their housing conditions deteriorated. The Western Cape is the only province where SADC migrants experienced an exceptional deterioration of most QOL dimensions (ownership of household goods, housing conditions and service delivery). Significant policy implications are discussed.

Keywords and phrases: SADC migrants; Changes in quality of life (QOL); Socio-economic dimension of QOL; Housing conditions dimension of QOL; Ownership of household goods dimension of QOL; Service-delivery dimension of QOL; South Africa.

OPSOMMING

Mense migreer wêreldwyd om hul lewenskwaliteit te verbeter, en daar is twee vrae wat gereeld oor hierdie immigrante gevra word. Is hierdie immigrante tevrede met hulle besluit om te migreer, en het hierdie skuif tot 'n verbeterde lewenskwaliteit gelei? (Olgiati et al. 2012). Verskeie faktore speel 'n rol in die beantwoording van hierdie vrae. Hierdie artikel bepaal of die lewenskwaliteit van die Suid-Afrikaanse Ontwikkelingsgemeenskap (SAOG) immigrante in Suid-Afrika en in die provinsies vanaf 2001 tot 2011 verbeter of versleg het. Data was uit die Sensus eenheid-rekords van Super-Cross onttrek en die veranderlikes was volgens sosio-demografiese, sosio-ekonomiese karaktereienskappe, behuisingskondisies, eienaarskap van huishoudelike goedere en diensleweringdimensies van lewenskwaliteit gegroepeer. Die studie het eerstens Excel gebruik om persentasies te bereken en figure te skep wat die sosio-demografiese profiel resultate vanaf 2001 tot 2011 vergelyk. Tweedens, is die persentasies gestandaardiseer deur die gemiddelde af te trek en deur die standaardafwyking te deel en 'n faktor analise op die sosio-ekonomiese, behuisingskondisies, eienaarskap van huishoudelike goedere en diensleweringveranderlikes gedoen om die mees belangrikste veranderlikes wat lewenskwaliteit van SAOG immigrante beïnvloed te bepaal. Laastens is 'n gemengde-model herhalende-meting ANOVA met die provinsies en jaar as vaste effekte, en munisipaliteite as ewekansige effek bereken om die statistiese betekenisvolle veranderinge wat in Suid-Afrika en die provinsies vanaf 2001 tot 2011 plaasgevind het te bepaal. Bevindinge toon 'n verbetering in die sosio-ekonomiese, eienaarskap van huishoudelike goedere en diensleweringdimensies van lewenskwaliteit van SAOG immigrante in Suid-Afrika vanaf 2001 tot 2011, terwyl die behuisingskondisies versleg het. Die Wes-Kaap is die enigste provinsie waar SAOG immigrante 'n uitsonderlike agteruitgang in meeste van die lewenskwaliteit dimensies (eienaarskap van huishoudelike goedere, behuisingskondisies en dienslewering) ervaar het. Beduidende beleidsimplikasies word bespreek.

Trefwoorde en frases: SAOG immigrante; Veranderinge in die lewenskwaliteit; Sosio-ekonomiese dimensie van lewenskwaliteit; Behuisingsdimensie van lewenskwaliteit; Eienaarskap van huishoudelike goedere dimensie van lewenskwaliteit; Diensleweringdimensie van lewenskwaliteit; Suid Afrika.

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SECTION 1: SETTING THE SCENE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The need for better livelihoods is a top goal for everyone which implies that, access to different resources and services is important in attaining a better quality of life (QOL) (Coates et al. 2013; Mahadea 2014). People often measure their well-being by looking at their immediate environment, families and livelihoods, before looking at the wider environment. QOL is a multidimensional concept which determines the extent to which objective human needs are met while keeping in mind individual perceptions concerning subjective well-being (Costanza 2006). There are two approaches of determining QOL namely objective and subjective QOL. Objective QOL uses variables that can be accurately measured in terms of quantity and frequency. Subjective QOL includes variables that are personally experienced and expressed by a person and cannot be measured accurately by anyone other than that person like levels of happiness and fulfilment (Costanza 2006; Cummins 1998).

People migrate to alternative destinations in search of better employment opportunities with higher earnings which will improve their living conditions and QOL in the process (Mara & Landesmann 2013; Moller 2007; Sam 1998 in Nesterko et al. 2012). Achieving this requires the correct mix of migrant networks for support, skills and resources (International Organisation for Migration [IOM] 2013). South Africa attracts many Southern African Development Community (SADC) migrants due to its stronger economic potential in the globalised economy and the dire economic situation in most of the SADC countries resulting in a lack of alternative livelihood opportunities, and ultimately dismal living conditions (Campbell 2007; Crush 2011; IOM 2013; Khan 2007).

The post-apartheid government implemented many redistributive policies to improve the well-being of all South African citizens including the Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) (1994) that focused primarily on poverty alleviation through the delivery of services and infrastructure to all and the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) (1996) that believed the wealth of the nation created by macro- and micro-economic policies

would ultimately trickle down to the lower masses and uplift their lives (Mahadea 2014; Naude et al. 2006). In 2004, the Breaking New Ground policy was implemented to ensure the creation of sustainable human settlements where households can enjoy safe, healthy and well-integrated urban lives with easy access to urban amenities (Department of Human Settlements [DOHS] 2004). More recently, the National Development Plan (NDP) was implemented to improve people's lives through reducing poverty by increasing access to housing, employment, education, health services, expanding infrastructure and service delivery, and reducing the spatial imprints of apartheid (National Planning Commission [NPC] 2011). Despite these efforts South Africa is still experiencing the socio-spatial and economic effects of the apartheid policies, resulting in dismal living conditions and a poorer QOL for many South Africans.

Given the aforementioned, it is not surprising that most SADC migrants in South Africa are more vulnerable to socio-economic shocks than natives, resulting in many experiencing problems in accessing services, accommodation and education; forcing them into townships where they experience poor living conditions (Khan 2007; IOM 2013). However, not all SADC migrants in South Africa experience a poor QOL, because South Africa encourages the immigration of highly-skilled people through the deficit skills programme that encourages migrants to apply for positions in highly-skilled occupations (Landau & Segatti 2009). The aforementioned programme results in migrants experiencing an improved QOL (Nshimbi & Fioramonti 2013).

The aim of this article was to determine if the QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa and the provinces has improved or deteriorated from 2001 to 2011, since little research has been conducted on this topic in South Africa. This was achieved by firstly providing a descriptive overview of the changes that occurred in the socio-demographic profile of SADC migrants in South Africa and the provinces from 2001 to 2011; followed by a determination of the most important factors influencing the QOL of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011; and lastly, applying these factors to determine the changes that occurred in the QOL dimensions (socio-economic, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service delivery) of SADC migrants in South Africa and the provinces from 2001 to 2011.

SECTION 2: INVESTIGATING THE QOL OF MIGRANTS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES: EXPERIENCES FROM THE LITERATURE

The literature discusses the development of the concept QOL and the types of QOL measurements namely objective and subjective indicators, followed by an explanation of international migration theory, trends and practices, with specific attention to the SADC and South African context. Lastly, the living conditions and QOL of migrants are discussed.

2.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT OF QOL

The concept QOL dates to the 4th century when philosophers contemplated the meaning of a “good life” and “living well”, with its meaning systematically developing in the developed nations in the 1960’s with a focus on economic indicators. From the 1970’s, QOL theorists realised that people’s QOL is influenced by the fulfilment of people’s economic and social needs. Hence, a link of the concept QOL and Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was established; to achieve a better QOL, people first have to achieve their most basic physiological needs (food, water and shelter), before achieving higher-order needs (a greater influence in the community and a realisation of one’s own abilities) higher up in the pyramid. Achieving the best possible QOL is thus about moving higher up in the pyramid and in the process fulfilling both economic and social needs (Bognar 2005; Grunberger & Omann 2011; Hagerty 1998). Two measurement approaches are used to measure QOL, namely objective and subjective indicators. Objective QOL variables are often universally applied due to standardised agreements about the quantitative measures used in this approach. Subjective QOL focuses on people’s experiences, perceptions and preferences which reveal a person’s evaluation of his/her QOL (Cummins 1998; Haq & Zia 2013; Hemmasi 1995; Vinayakam & Sekar 2013). In order to fully understand the concept QOL, it is important to incorporate both objective and subjective indicators into an analysis (Costanza 2006; Darkey & Kariuki 2013; Ventegodt et al. 2003).

2.2 MIGRATION THEORIES AND ASSOCIATED PUSH AND PULL FACTORS INFLUENCING MIGRANTS' DECISION TO MIGRATE

People migrate to improve their QOL; which is the basic principle on which international migration theories are built, with each theory adjusting this basic principle slightly to demonstrate the different reasons for migration (Figure 2.1). The neo-classical migration and new economics of migration theories indicate that people migrate to improve their economic situation. The decision rests on the individual in the former's case and on the family unit in the latter. In the dual labour market theory migrants are attracted to the low-paying job market associated with poorer working conditions. According to the world system theory migration routes follow colonial ties, while the network, institutional and cumulative causation, and migration systems theories all emphasise the importance of supporting networks and institutions in the migration process to allow a communication link between sending and receiving nations, which allows for the improvement of migrants' welfare in the receiving nations.

The aforementioned migration theories result in several push and pull factors which influence people's decisions to migrate. The push factors include the lack of employment opportunities, poverty, insecurity, famine, food shortage, unfavourable climate, religious persecution, bad governance and conflicts. There is also the need to adopt new skills, accumulate income and assets and improve one's socio-economic status and standard of living in society (Crush & Williams 2003; Department for International Development [DFID] 2007). The pull factors attracting migrants to alternative locations include better employment opportunities, better municipal and basic services, food supply; education, freedom, a nicer climate, the need for joining other family members, and the presence of established migrant networks (DFID 2007; Hagen-Zanker 2008).

Migration theory	• Main assumptions
Neo-classical migration theory	• Migration is caused by macro and micro level differences in the geographic supply and demand of labour, resulting in wage differentials between areas. The aforementioned results in the migration of people from low-wage countries to high-wage countries – this process occurs until equilibrium is reached. Conversely, highly skilled labour respond to the differences in the rate of return to human capital and move from high-wage nations to low-wage nations (in other words in the opposite direction as the normal movement patterns of unskilled labour). On a micro level, people consider all the costs and benefits of migration, before migrating to areas where their skills are needed most.
The new economics of migration	• The decision to migrate is made by the family or kinship unit, not by individuals. The aim of migrating is not only to maximise income, but to minimise the risks associated with the labour market in the country of origin. Some family or kinship members may work locally, while others work in foreign destinations where the returns may be higher. Having a healthy labour, capital and insurance market minimises the negative effects on income. This is especially the case in the developed countries. Conversely, migration is the only way for migrants from developing countries to diversity their income-earning potential, due to the capital and insurance market experiencing major problems in the developing countries.
Dual labour market theory	• In this theory, migration is not caused by push factors in the country of origin, but by the chronic need for foreign workers in the receiving country. There is a general believe that occupational hierarchy reflects economic and social status; hence local workers are not willing to take up low-status and low-paying jobs. In turn, employers are not able to raise the wages for the jobs that are offered at the bottom of the occupational hierarchy, because it implies raising the wages for all the levels of employment, which is a costly process to undertake. The aforementioned results in the fact that migrant workers are employed during times of labour scarcity – implying that these jobs are low-paying and insecure.
World systems theory	• More developing countries became part of the capitalist economy as it expanded over the years. The aforementioned process resulted in the social uproot of people who migrate to larger and more global cities in search of better opportunities and living conditions.

Continued overleaf

Figure 2.1 Main international migration theories

Migration theory	• Main assumptions
Network theory	• Social networks between migrants and potential migrants in the origin and destination countries assist migrants with general information about migration, finding employment opportunities and accommodation, which lowers the costs and risks associated with migration.
Institutional theory	• Profit-seeking organisations often employ illegal migrants – most of them end being exploited and victimised. Voluntary organisations provide humanitarian aid to these illegal migrants in the form of social services and accommodation. Voluntary organisations also assist migrants in obtaining their legal documents. The aforementioned increases the migration flow to destination areas
Cumulative causation theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More migration alters the social context within which subsequent migration decisions are made, which increase the likelihood of more migration. Six macro-economic factors are affected by migration in a cumulative manner namely income distribution, land distribution, organisation of the agrarian production, migration culture, regional distribution of human capital and social labelling. • Income distribution: People migrate to improve their income levels relative to other people that are experiencing similar conditions as them. • Land distribution: The land purchased by rural migrants is not used, which reduces the production value and labour demand of the land. The result is that more people migrate in search of better opportunities. • Agrarian production: The continued mechanisation of the production of land renders physical labour as redundant – resulting in the increase of migration in search of job opportunities. • Migration culture: The increased knowledge of the better living conditions and job opportunities offered in destination areas increases the likelihood of more migration occurring – thus a culture of migration is created. • Regional distribution of human capital: The initial migrants tend to be better educated and have more skills. As the migration process continues over time, poorly educated and skilled migrants are also attracted to the migration process. The result is that the sending region becomes depleted of human capital, which lowers its economic potential. • Social labelling: In the destination area, some jobs are labelled as migrant jobs; resulting in the fact that local people do not want to be employed in these jobs due to the stigmatisation associated with it. Consequently, these jobs are reserved for foreigners, resulting in the increase of migration to these destination areas.
Migration systems theory	• The migration systems theory is an expansion of the world systems, institutional and cumulative causation theories. In essence, the migration systems theory indicates that international migration flows become more consistent over space and time. Furthermore, the socio-economic conditions experienced in the countries will determine if the countries participate in the international migration flow or not.

(Source: Hagen-Zanker 2008; Massey et al. 1993; Thieme 2006)

Figure 2.1 continued

Various political and economic push and pull factors also influence migration from the SADC region to South Africa including the political instability resulting from civil wars occurring especially in Angola, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Mozambique and economic collapse of many African economies, specifically occurring in Zimbabwe, resulting in a lack of economic and livelihood opportunities, unemployment, and poverty. Conversely, SADC migrants are attracted to South Africa due to its political stability after apartheid and its resultant regional economic role it fulfils in the globalised economy, offering better employment opportunities and ultimately better living conditions (Crush et al. 2005; IOM 2013; Khan 2007; Landau & Segatti 2009).

2.3 THE QOL OF MIGRANTS

2.3.1 The socio-demographic characteristics of the migrants influencing their QOL

The socio-demographic characteristics influencing migrants' QOL include gender, age, marital status, household size, country of origin, citizenship, and length of stay. Gender inequality is visible in migration patterns, with most male migrants experiencing a better QOL than female migrants who are worse off due to gender abuse. This situation is even worse if they have children (De Jong 2002 et al.; DFID 2007). Kurdish female migrants in Sweden and female migrants in South Africa experienced worse living conditions due to them falling in the lowest socio-economic class; making it difficult for them to access jobs and resources (IOM 2007; Lefko-Everett 2007; Taloyan 2008). The QOL of migrants is influenced by their ages, because younger migrants tend to have a higher life satisfaction, while migrants in their midlife experience a decrease in their life satisfaction, with a rise experienced in life satisfaction during and after retirement. This may be attributed to younger migrants being able to obtain employment opportunities easier than older migrants, which provide them with an income, and consequently an ability to improve their QOL (Anderson et al. 2009). Younger migrants in Germany (30 years and younger), Romania and Italy experienced an improved QOL than older migrants (Mara & Ladesmann 2013; Nesterko et al. 2012). Married migrants often experience an improved QOL, because they are able to combine their resources and income to survive (Anderson et al. 2009). Conversely, having

more household members result in resources having to be distributed between more migrants, often affecting the QOL negatively (De Jong et al. 2002).

The migrants' country of origin also determines their QOL; in some cases migrants from developed countries find it easier to adapt to conditions in different countries due to their better socio-economic profile, compared to migrants coming from developing countries (Goldlust & Richmond 1974; Rebhun 2009). Lebanese, North African and Vietnamese migrants in Australia experienced a lower employment status than European migrants, resulting in a lower household income, poorer housing conditions, and ultimately a poorer QOL (Borooah & Mangan 2006). British and American migrants in Toronto were mostly employed in middle-and upper-class jobs, compared to migrants from other countries who worked in blue collar occupations (Goldlust & Richmond 1974). Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa experienced lower levels of education and found it difficult to obtain citizenship, resulting in them not finding employment and consequently many struggle financially, which negatively influences their QOL (Crush 2005; Misago et al. 2009).

In terms of citizenship, natives normally have a better QOL compared to migrants. The aforementioned is due to many migrants having poor levels of education, thus negatively impacting their socio-economic status, as many seek employment opportunities in foreign countries in order to improve their living conditions. Once in the foreign countries, they find it difficult to acculturate to the new culture and to obtain citizenship, thus leaving them even more socio-economically disadvantaged than they were before moving to the country (Baltatescu 2007; Everett & Gfellner 1994; Nesterko et al. 2012; Sundari 2003). Additionally, many migrants also remit money back home to allow their families to survive, thus worsening their socio-economic conditions and ultimately their QOL (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal 2005). Furthermore, some migrants lack legal documents, making it difficult to obtain citizenship, excluding them from employment opportunities, service delivery, and leaving them subjected to xenophobia, harassment, deportation and criminalisation (DFID 2007; IOM 2013).

Eastern European migrants in Western European countries reported lower levels of subjective well-being than natives, because most of them recently moved from poor conflict nations (e.g. Yugoslavia), resulting in them having less time to integrate culturally and economically (Baltatescu 2007). Likewise, Italian and Maltese migrants in Australia were more likely to be employed in less desirable jobs than their native counterparts (Borooah & Mangan 2006), while migrants also experienced low levels of life satisfaction in South Africa (IOM 2013; Wentzel 2003). Illegal Mexican and Central American migrants in the United States of America were more likely to live in overcrowded, structurally deficient dwellings with poor public services, due to them not being able to purchase homes for themselves (Hall & Greenman 2013). Illegal migrants in Toronto also experienced challenges in accessing employment, housing and healthcare facilities, which left them vulnerable to abuse and poverty, resulting in a poorer QOL (Sidhu 2013; Sundari 2003). Although all of the unskilled migrants in Bangkok, Thailand, faced adverse working and living conditions, the situation was worse for illegal and unskilled migrants who did not have job security, had lower wages, resided in poor-quality houses, and remitted money back home (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphal 2005). Conversely, migrants with German citizenship experienced a higher life satisfaction than the illegal migrants in Germany (Nesterko et al. 2009). Most illegal migrants in South Africa are offered temporary employment contracts, which make them vulnerable to abuse by employers; further jeopardising their QOL (Freemantle 2011; Khan 2007; Landau & Segatti 2009).

The length of stay of migrants impacts their QOL, with those staying temporarily reporting lower levels of life satisfaction and economic well-being, while more permanent migrants staying for longer periods of time report the opposite. Permanent migrants in Thailand are more likely to have higher education levels and a stronger commitment to find permanent employment, while new migrants in Alexandra, Johannesburg, are more likely to be unemployed, indicating a poorer QOL (De Jong et al. 2002; Misago et al. 2009).

2.3.2 The socio-economic conditions faced by migrants influencing their QOL

Migrants often migrate in search of better employment opportunities that will allow them to increase their incomes and ultimately their living conditions and QOL; having a good-quality

higher education level assists in the aforementioned process (Anderson et al. 2009; Kifle & Kleir 2008; Olgiati et al. 2012; Richard et al. 2005 in Baltatescu 2007). Educated migrants in Canada, even those migrants that were temporarily employed, reported higher levels of life satisfaction than uneducated migrants. These educated migrants were English speaking, which eased the acculturation process into the Canadian culture and way of life, and made it easier for them to obtain better employment opportunities in occupations that pay higher incomes. Some were even able to become members of professional and leisure networks, making information sharing easier (Goldlust & Richmond 1974). Better educated migrants in Israel were able to purchase homes and household goods, while better educated migrants in Johannesburg obtained better employment opportunities paying them higher incomes, making it possible for them to afford payment of more municipal services, thus improving their QOL (Misago et al. 2009; Rebhun 2009). Conversely, uneducated African migrants in Australia experienced lower levels of financial satisfaction and ultimately a poorer QOL (Kifle & Kleir 2008), while temporary migrants in South Africa often belong to the lowest socio-economic class, thus negatively affecting their QOL (IOM 2007).

The country where the education was obtained also influences the ability of migrants to obtain job opportunities. Those who obtained their education in their home-countries often find that their qualifications are under-valued, resulting in long working hours and lower wages, and ultimately a poorer QOL (Baltatescu 2007; Borooah & Mangan 2006). This was the case in Toronto where working long hours increased the unhappiness of migrants, and in South Africa where migrants took up unskilled jobs and worked under inhumane conditions (Freemantle 2011; Islam & Mayer 2013; Khan 2007; Landau & Segatti 2009). The length of stay in the destination country also influences the perceptions of migrants with regards to their income levels. Migrants who stay in the destination country for shorter periods of time are more likely to compare their income levels to their home-countries. However, over time, as they settle down and integrate into the way of life of the destination country, they realise that their relative income is lower than that of the natives, which results in a lower life satisfaction and ultimately a poorer QOL (De Jong et al. 2002; Olgiati et al. 2012).

2.3.3 The housing conditions faced by migrants influencing their QOL

The housing conditions in which migrants reside also influence their QOL – having a lower income and no collateral to obtain loans from formal institutions make it impossible for them to purchase and own a good-quality house comprised of permanent building materials that would be able to house many dependents, family members or friends (IOM 2007; McDonald 1998; Ukoha & Beamish 1997). The result is that many migrants, especially in the developing countries, end up living in overcrowded informal settlements with no tenure security (in some cases renting backyard shacks) and inadequate service delivery (Balbo 2005). Migrants in South Africa, for example, do not qualify for government subsidised low-cost housing, leaving many with no option but to reside in overcrowded self-built informal settlements without adequate service delivery (Landau & Segatti 2009; McDonald 1998; Misago et al. 2009). Not being able to purchase and own a house, indirectly affects migrants' ability to own household goods, due to the overcrowded conditions (Hall & Greenman 2013). Migrants with a higher income in Israel were able to obtain better employment opportunities that pay a higher income, resulting in them being able to purchase more household goods, which in turn improved their living standards (Rebhun 2009). As household income increases, this enables more access to household possessions and ultimately municipal services which improves QOL (Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [Eunice Kennedy Shriver Institute] 2005).

2.3.4 The service-delivery scenario faced by migrants influencing their QOL

Having access to municipal services that are delivered regularly and are maintained properly improves the QOL of migrants (Marques & Borges de Lima 2011). Unskilled migrants in Bangkok experienced a poorer QOL due to them not having access to latrines, water and electricity (in some cases migrants resorted to their own connections) (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal 2005). Poorer migrants also suffered ill-conceived service delivery in Brazil, while migrants in Nairobi and Alexandra, Johannesburg, experienced a lack of education and healthcare facilities, housing provision, sanitation, waste management, and water services (Darkey & Kariuki 2013; Marques & Borges de Lima 2011; Misago et al. 2009).

To conclude, the literature mostly reports subjective well-being experiences of migrants, in other words, what migrants perceived constitutes an improved QOL. The aforementioned is described mostly in the case of migrants residing illegally in informal settlements. Little research has been conducted on the objective QOL of migrants, specifically in South Africa. Consequently, this study aims to fill this gap in the knowledge by determining if there has been an improvement or deterioration in the QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa and the nine provinces from 2001 to 2011.

SECTION 3: METHODOLOGY

This empirical study followed a positivistic methodological approach to determine if the QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa and the nine provinces has improved or deteriorated from 2001 to 2011. Variables relating to the socio-demographic, socio-economic characteristics, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service-delivery situation were extracted from the Census 2001 and 2011 unit records from Super-Cross (Figure 3.1). The study firstly used Excel to calculate percentages and create figures to compare the 2001 and 2011 socio-demographic profile results. Secondly percentages were standardised by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. A factor analysis was then performed on the socio-economic, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service-delivery variables to determine the most important variables influencing the QOL of SADC migrants. A factor analysis involves the simplification of large quantities of observable variables into a smaller number of unobservable variables which are called factors (Bryant & Yarnold 2000). The extraction of factors was based on higher factor loadings (of 0.5 and higher) and the variables' relationships with QOL theory. In some cases, lower and negative factor loadings were also deemed appropriate, because it fitted with the general observations obtained from the higher factor loadings. Perhaps more importantly, the observations obtained from the lower and negative factor loadings also matched the contents of the literature that indicate the QOL dimensions to be socio-economic, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service delivery. A reverse score was calculated for the negative factor loadings.

The extracted factors were used to construct four dimensions of QOL: 1) the socio-economic dimension consisting of the factor about low income levels and low levels of education and another about the super-rich with tertiary education, 2) the dimension on housing conditions consisting of the tenure status factor and another about the type of housing for SADC migrants, 3) the dimension on ownership of household goods consisting of the ownership of household goods, and 4) the service-delivery dimension consisting of the inadequate and adequate provision of services. Lastly, a mixed-model repeated-measures ANOVA with province and year as fixed effects, and municipalities as random effect was calculated to determine if statistically significant changes have occurred in South Africa and in the

provinces from 2001 to 2011. Repeated-measures ANOVA was appropriate because repeated measurements on the same units (South Africa and the nine provinces) were compared over two time points (2001 and 2011) and the mixed-model approach was the preferred method because it can handle an unbalanced design as well as missing data. The ANOVA figures are interpreted in the following way: If there are corresponding letters in 2001 and 2011, then it means that there were no statistically significant changes that occurred in the provinces from 2001 to 2011. If there are different letters in 2001 and 2011, then it means that there were statistically significant changes that occurred in the provinces from 2001 to 2011. Final conclusions on the improvement or deterioration of the QOL of SADC migrants were drawn from the QOL dimensions.

Dimension of QOL	• Variables (Available for 2001 and 2011)
Socio-demographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender (male/female) • Race (White, Coloured, Indian, Black) • Age • Marital status (single, married, divorced, widowed) • Citizenship status • Household size
Socio-economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Household income levels • Education levels • Field of educational studies
Housing characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dwelling type • Tenure status
Household goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refrigerator • Computer • Television set • Landline
Service delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to water • Energy (heating, lighting, cooking) • Sanitation • Refuse removal

Figure 3.1 Variables used in this study

SECTION 4: CHANGES IN THE QOL OF SADC MIGRANTS IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2001 TO 2011

This section provides a brief overview of the socio-demographic profile changes that occurred for SADC migrants residing in South Africa from 2001 to 2011, after which the factors influencing the QOL of SADC migrants are determined in order to construct QOL dimensions, which are then used to determine the changes that have occurred in the QOL of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011.

4.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SADC MIGRANTS

The socio-demographic profile of SADC migrants consists of an overview of their gender, age, population group, marital status, household size, citizenship status, length of stay and level of education.

South Africa and all the provinces recorded increases in the total number of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011 (Figure 4.1). Most migrants move to areas that will provide them with better employment opportunities, higher incomes, and consequently, better living conditions (Crush et al. 2005). It is therefore not surprising that close to half of the SADC migrants resided in Gauteng in 2001 and 2011, with the North West containing the second most migrants in 2001 and Limpopo in 2011. The Western Cape demonstrated an almost ten-fold increase in the total number of migrants from 2001 to 2011 because the province had one of the highest economic growth rates over the past decade which attracts more migrants in search of job opportunities (Poswa & Levy 2006; Stats SA 2013). Other provinces that showed significant increases were KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and the North West. These results indicate that some migrants are attracted to metropolitan areas that offer more economic opportunities; while other migrants are attracted to the mining region in South Africa being situated in Mpumalanga and the North West (South Africa 2013; Van Huyssteen et al. 2008). Limpopo showed significant increases most probably due to it being the gateway from the SADC region to South Africa (IOM 2009).

Province	2001	2011
• Eastern Cape	• 6032	• 29273
• Free State	• 26698	• 41886
• Gauteng	• 150319	• 663876
• KwaZulu-Natal	• 16612	• 74787
• Limpopo	• 36722	• 115348
• Mpumalanga	• 31628	• 91012
• North West	• 40909	• 98399
• Northern Cape	• 1427	• 9308
• Western Cape	• 9815	• 96006
• South Africa	• 320162	• 1219895

Figure 4.1 Number of SADC migrants in South Africa

Most SADC migrants in South Africa and in the nine provinces are male (Figure 4.2). In 2001, the percentage of males is highest in the North West (77.4%); Gauteng (71.6%) and Mpumalanga (66.5%); females only surpassed males in the Eastern Cape. The percentage of male migrants in South Africa and all provinces, except the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, decreased in 2011 probably because more males tend to migrate (Crush 2005).

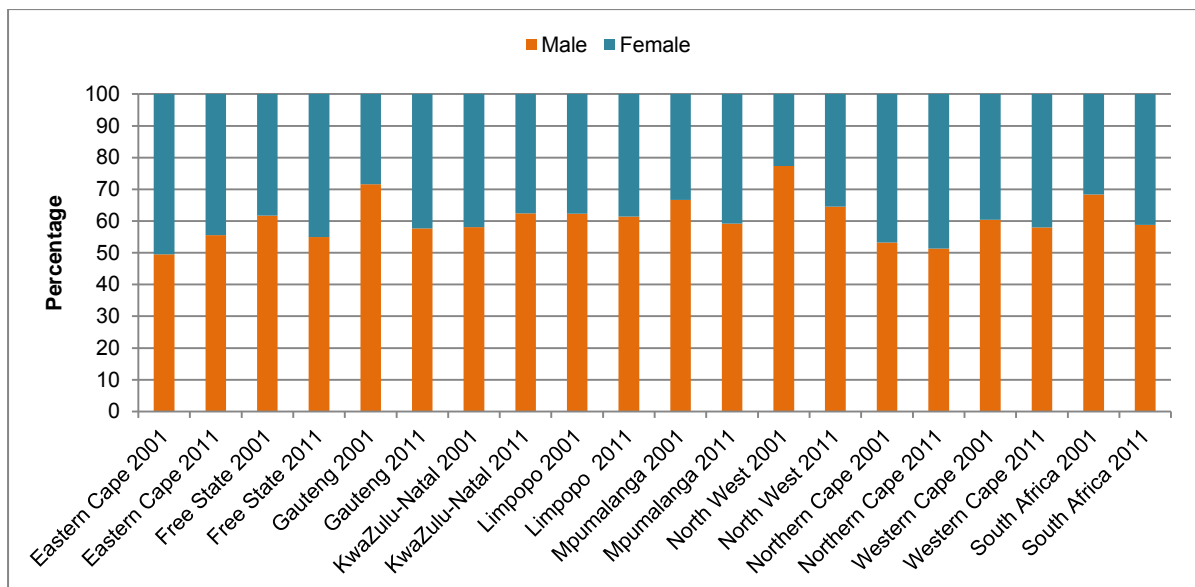


Figure 4.2 Gender of SADC migrants

The biggest group of migrants is in the working age (22-35 years and 36-64 years) in 2001 and 2011 (Figure 4.3). In 2001 the younger group (22-35 years) is most prominent in Gauteng (49.1%) and Limpopo (43.4%) while in 2011 this was slightly over 50% in Gauteng, Limpopo and the Western Cape. The older group (36-64 years) generally decreased for South Africa and all the provinces from 2001 to 2011. The younger age group (15-21 years old) is more prominent than the 0-14 age group, although it shows a slight decline, while the elderly migrants (over 65 years old) are the least prominent group in South Africa and all the provinces. These results thus show that the migrant population is skewed towards the younger working age group, which most probably relates to the international migration theories that indicate that this group is prone to leave their families in their home countries to tend to the land and housing, while they search for employment opportunities in foreign countries (Crush et al. 2005).

Black people are the most prominent SADC migrants in South Africa in 2001 (more than 98%) and in 2011 (more than 90%), with most of them settling in Limpopo, Mpumalanga and the North West (Figure 4.4), most probably because there is large scale mining and agricultural activities in these provinces which means more employment opportunities for them (South Africa 2013). White people are the second largest population group in 2001 and 2011, with most of them residing in the coastal provinces (the Eastern, Western and Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). In South Africa, white people generally experience less poverty than black people (Statistics South Africa [Stats SA] 2012). A similar scenario may be at play in the SADC countries, resulting in white people being able to settle in coastal provinces that offer tourism-and retirement-orientated lifestyles (Crush 2005). Not surprisingly, the percentage of white people doubled in 2011, most probably relating to the seizure of white-owned farms, estates and properties that occurred in many African countries (Minority Rights Group International [MRGI] 2008). Coloured and Indians constitute very small percentages in 2001 and 2011.

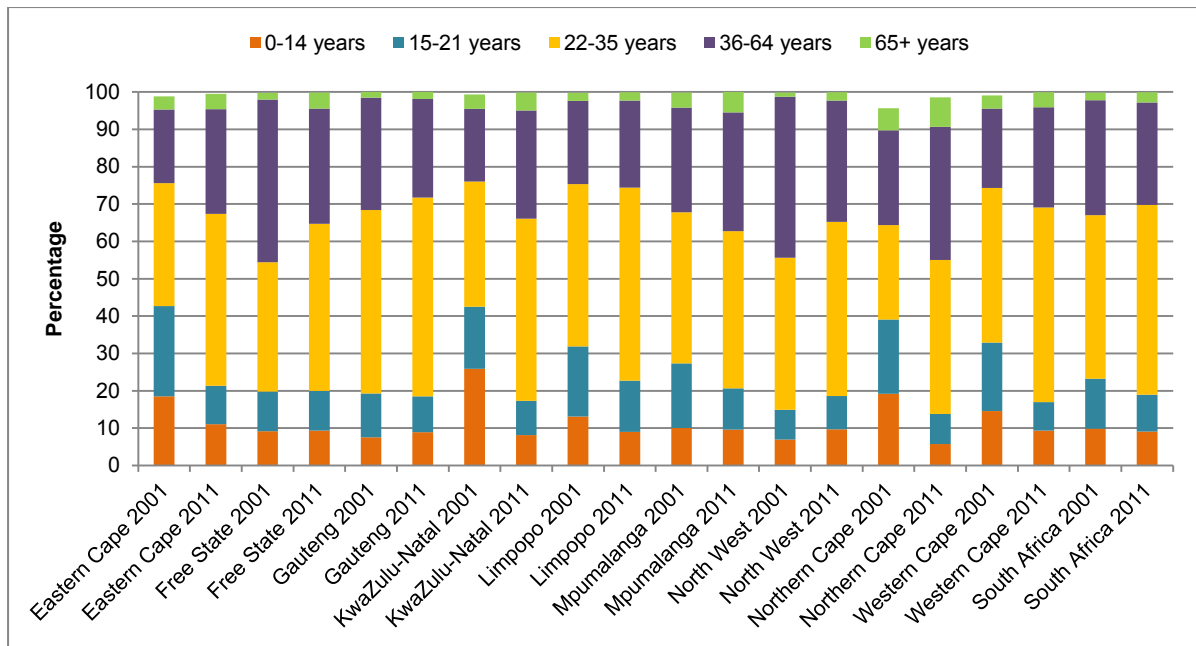


Figure 4.3 Age profile of SADC migrants

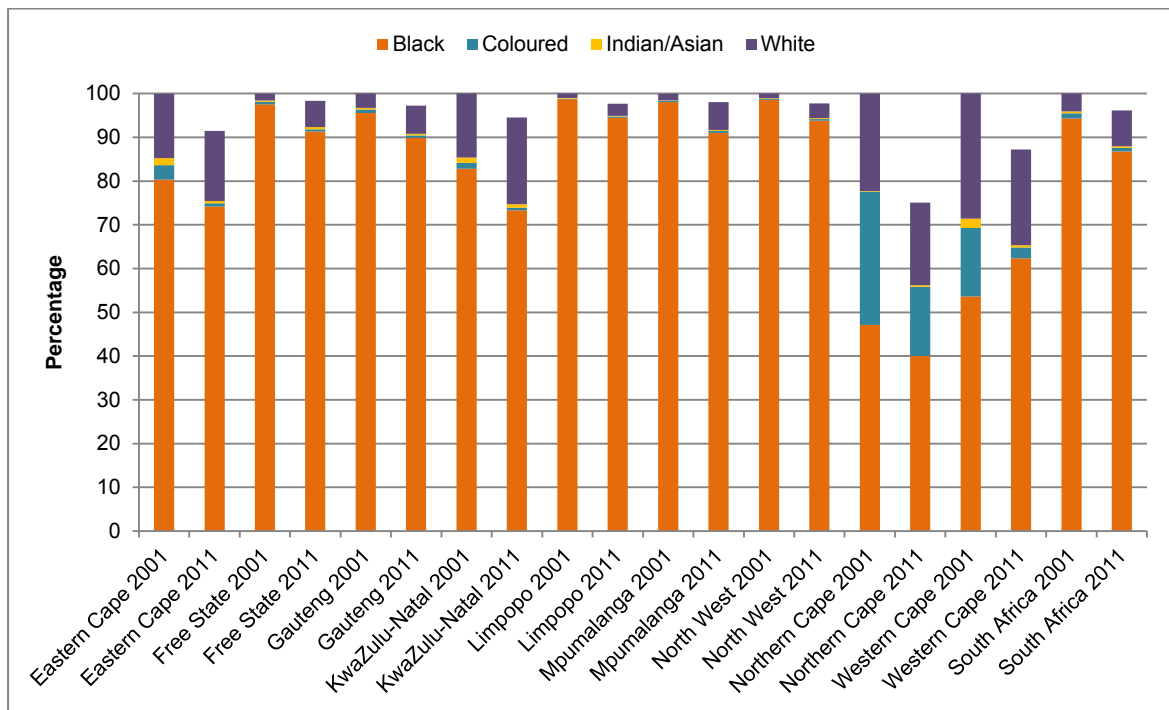


Figure 4.4 Population groups of SADC migrants

SADC migrants in South Africa were predominantly married in 2001 and 2011 (Figure 4.5), with most married SADC migrants found in the North West (66.7%) and Free State (60.9%) in 2001, and in the North West (59.8%) and the Western Cape (56.5%) in 2011. Being

married could indicate a possible higher QOL, with consideration of other factors like income, because people are able to combine their resources in order to survive (Anderson et al. 2009). About two-thirds of SADC migrants were never married in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape in 2001. A slight decline is observed for the never married category in 2011, especially in the coastal provinces. Migrants who were once married in South Africa are few.

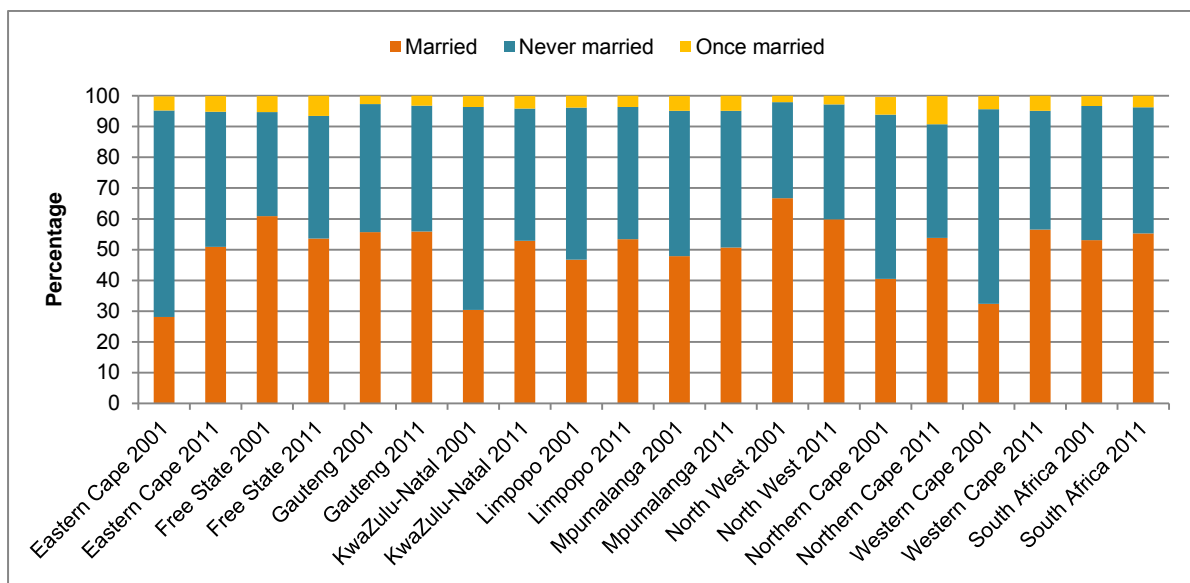


Figure 4.5 Marital statuses of SADC migrants

In 2001, single-member households were dominant in South Africa and in the North West (34.9%), Gauteng (33.3%) and the Free State (31.7%) (Figure 4.6). In 2011, this pattern changed to households mostly consisting of 3-4 members, with 2-member and 5-9 member households also being fairly common in South Africa and in all the provinces. Households with 10 or more members are few throughout. More household members results in a decreased life satisfaction for migrants, because resources have to be distributed between more people (De Jong et al. 2002).

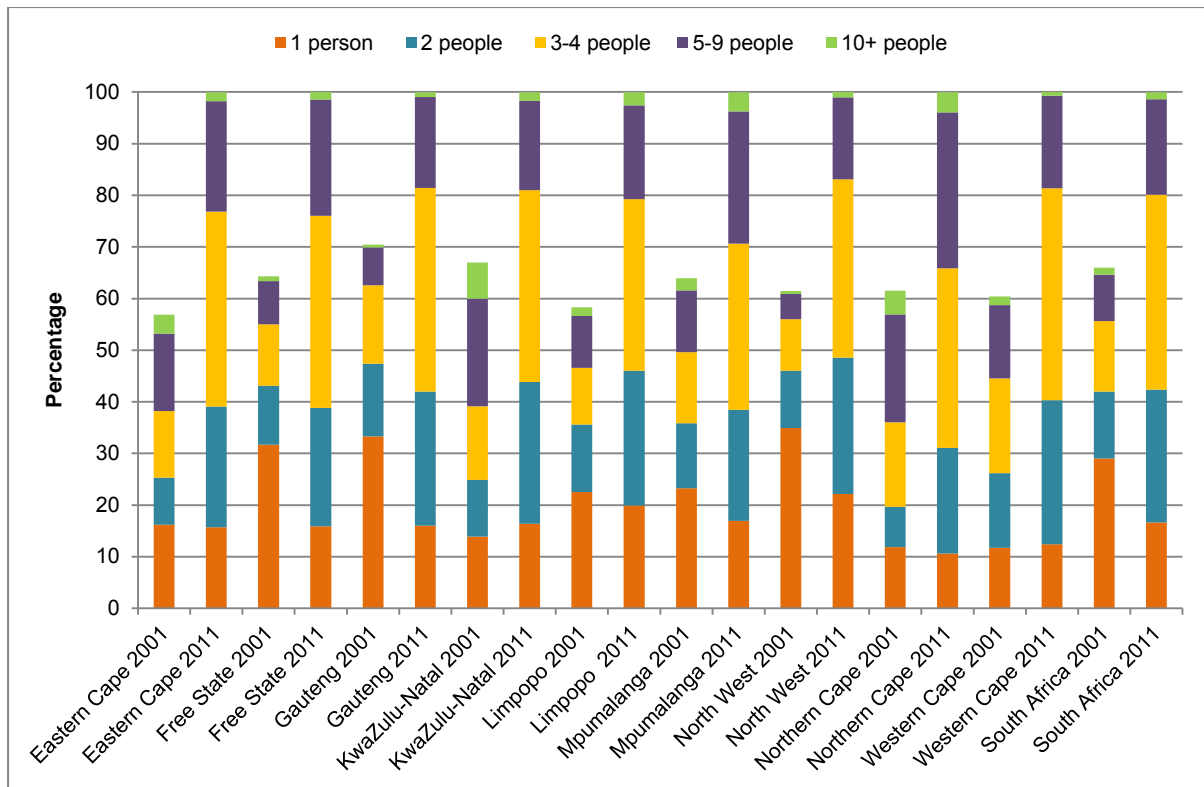
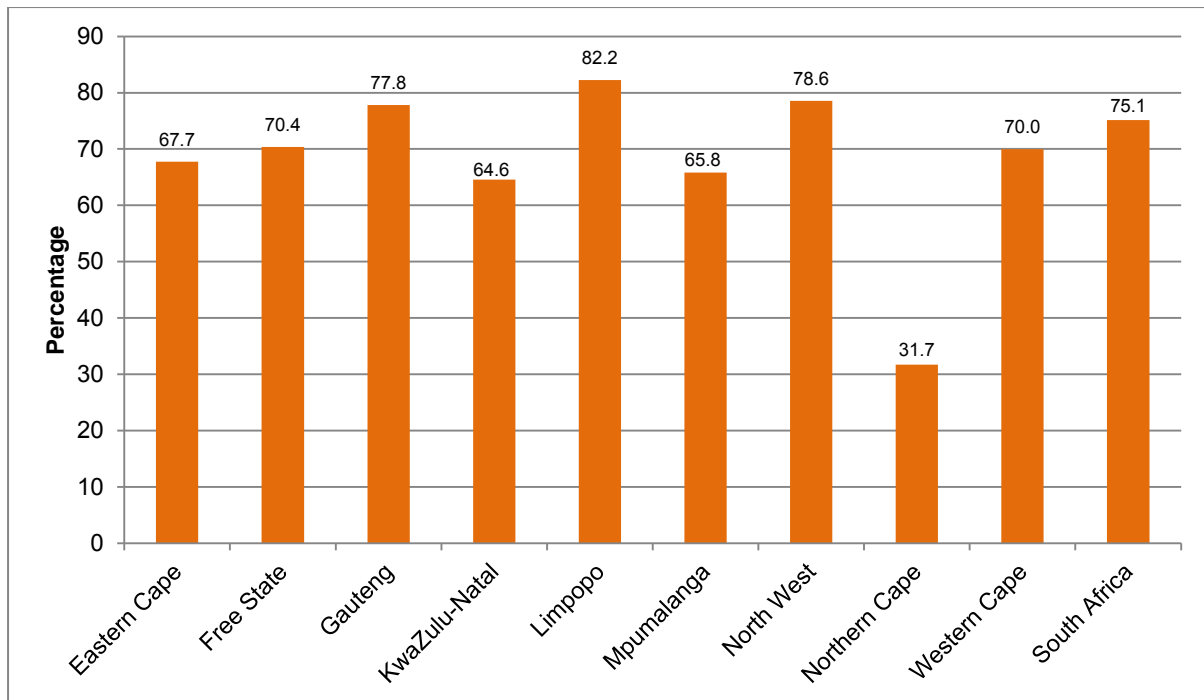


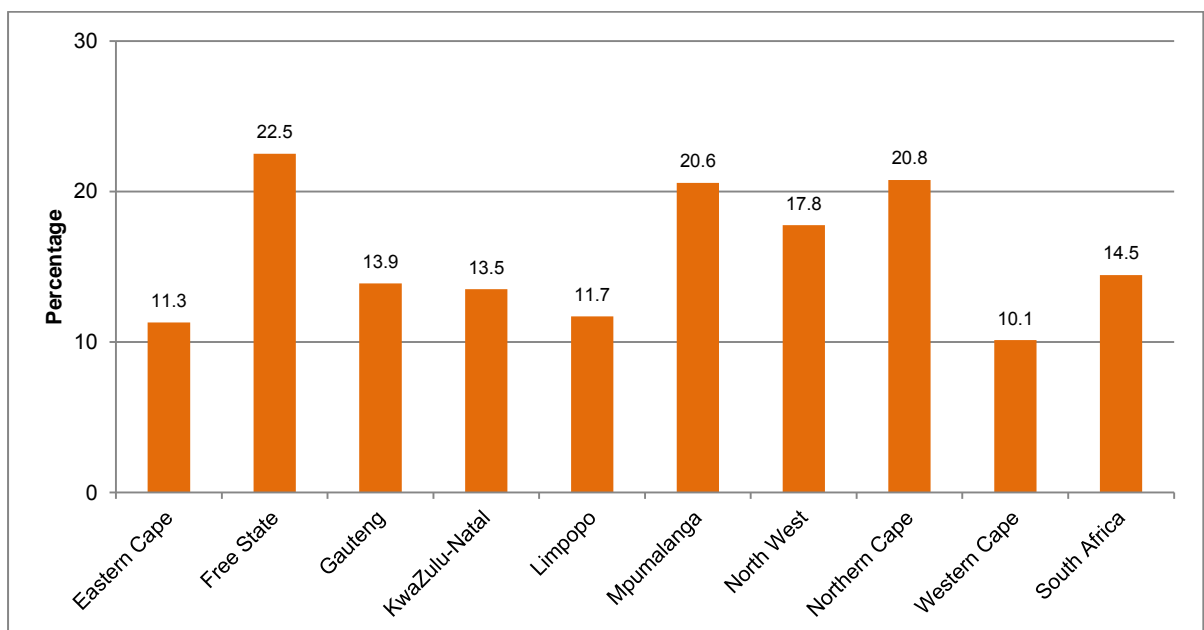
Figure 4.6 SADC migrant household sizes

About three-quarters of SADC migrants did not have South African citizenship in 2011, with this figure being above 64% for most of the provinces (Figure 4.7). The Northern Cape is the only province where only about 30% of SADC migrants do not have South African citizenship. Furthermore, the percentage of SADC migrants who have resided in South Africa since 2001 does not extend above 22.5% in most provinces, with an average of 14.5% for South Africa (Figure 4.8). Obtaining citizenship status of the destination country offers better access to employment opportunities and service delivery, which leads to an improved QOL (Nesterko et al. 2009). Additionally, obtaining citizenship status is linked to the length of residency in a destination country – the longer the stay the better the chances of obtaining citizenship and socio-economic well-being (Borooah & Mangan 2006; Mara & Landesmann 2013; Nesterko et al. 2012). Thus, these results indicate that SADC migrants could struggle to improve their QOL in South Africa.



Note: Citizenship data is only indicated for 2011, because the 2001 data reflected 100% throughout.

Figure 4.7 SADC migrants without citizenship status



Note: The 2011 length of stay data indicates that SADC migrants have resided in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. The 2001 data could not be indicated because the length of residency data only reflects SADC migrants that resided in South Africa from 1996 to 2001.

Figure 4.8 Length of stay of SADC migrants

Most of the SADC migrants have completed their secondary education in South Africa, with the highest percentage found in the Western Cape (52.2%) in 2001 and the Free State (42.0%) and Gauteng (40.5%) in 2011 (Figure 4.9). This situation corresponds to the literature that indicates that well-educated migrants move to metropolitan areas that offer more economic opportunities (Van Huyssteen et al. 2008). There is also a relatively large group of migrants who had limited (primary) or no education in South Africa in 2001 and 2011. The situation is more pronounced in Limpopo and Mpumalanga in 2001, which could be attributed to the fact that poorer migrants often have poorer levels of education and therefore struggle to obtain enough money to settle in provinces just past the South African border (IOM 2009). Overall, the education levels of SADC migrants improved from 2001 to 2011 – implying a higher level of financial satisfaction and ultimately an improvement in their QOL (Kifle & Kleir 2008).

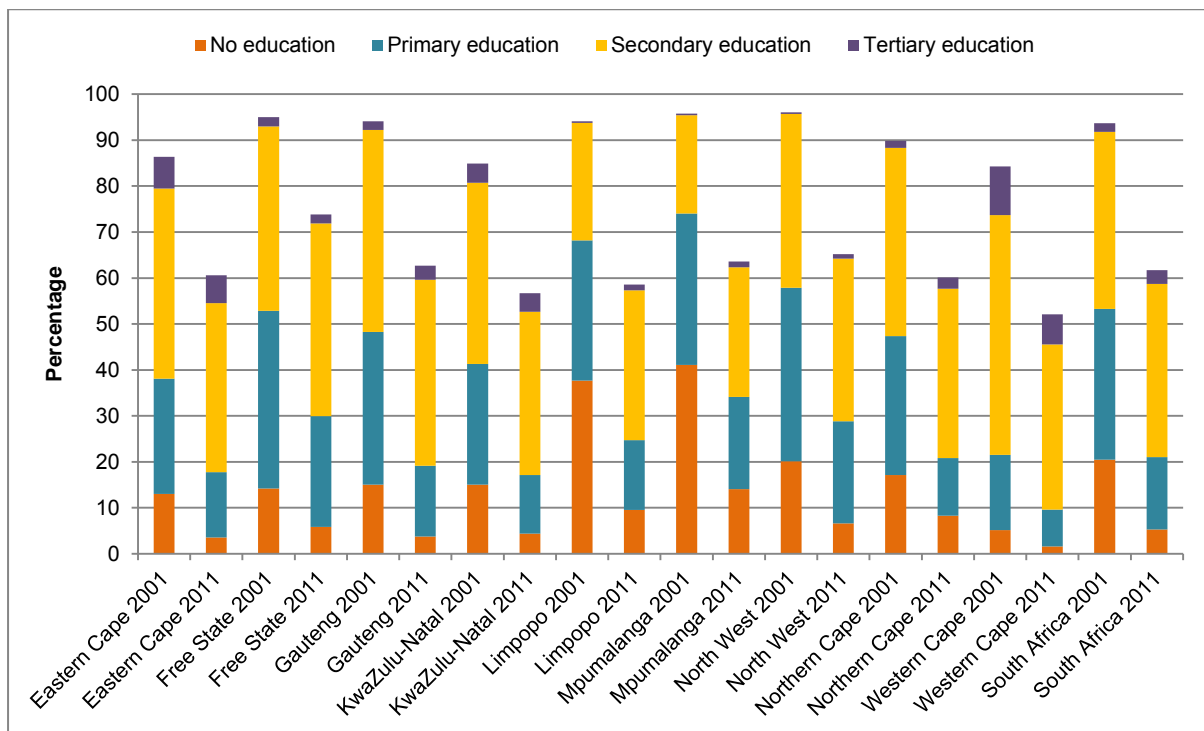


Figure 4.9 Education levels of SADC migrants

4.2 COMPUTING THE CHANGES THAT OCCURRED IN THE QOL DIMENSIONS OF SADC MIGRANTS FROM 2001 TO 2011

In order to compute the changes that have occurred in the QOL dimensions of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011, it was firstly important to perform a factor analysis to determine the most important variables influencing the QOL of SADC migrants for both 2001 and 2011. Higher factor loadings (and in some cases lower and negative factor loadings) and how well variables relate to QOL theory were considered in the extraction of the seven factors, which were then used to construct four dimensions of QOL (socio-economic, housing conditions, ownership of household goods and service delivery) (Figure 4.10). These dimensions of QOL match the findings in the literature (Baltatescu 2007; Misago et al. 2009; Rebhun 2009; Sundari 2003). Next, a mixed-model repeated-measures ANOVA with province and year as fixed effects, and municipalities as random effect was calculated to determine if statistically significant changes have occurred in these factors from 2001 to 2011 in South Africa and all nine provinces. Finally, an overall conclusion was drawn on the QOL of SADC migrants based on the QOL dimensions.

Factor names and Dimension of QOL	Variables extracted and its associated factor loadings
Low-income group with low levels of education = Socio-economic dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low income (0.724086312) • No income (-0.650872994) • No schooling (0.669111627) • Primary education (0.717123748)
The super-rich with tertiary education = Socio-economic dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engineering (field of education) (0.663154901) • Health sciences (field of education) (0.679632608) • Philosophy (field of education) (0.625707201) • Super rich (0.790174653) • Tertiary education (0.386880047)
Tenure status = Housing conditions dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rent-free dwelling (0.735040068) • Rented dwelling (-0.668088508)
Type of housing = Housing conditions dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detached dwelling (0.637098235) • Informal dwelling (-0.562431227) • Owned dwelling (0.842094903)
Household goods = Household goods dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computer (-0.838673) • Refrigerator (-0.963840) • Telephone (-0.875567) • Television (-0.933222)
Inadequate provision of services = Service-delivery dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community or own refuse dump (-0.800383769) • Cooking with wood (-0.827779968) • Heating with wood (-0.867479027) • Candles for lighting (-0.7702252752) • No piped water (-0.658815053) • No refuse dump (-0.554375566) • No toilet (-0.702955612) • Pit latrine (-0.52090295) • Water on community stand (-0.558085164)
Adequate provision of services = Service-delivery dimension of QOL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooking with electricity (-0.848541751) • Heating with electricity (-0.938199794) • Lighting with electricity (-0.909056436) • Flush toilet (-0.890584093) • Local authority refuse removal (-0.731394365) • Water inside the dwelling (-0.665897085)

Figure 4.10 Variables extracted per factor and QOL dimension

4.2.1 Changes in the socio-economic dimension of QOL

Research established a link between the socio-economic conditions of migrants and their resultant QOL - the higher the level of education, income and formal employment the better

the QOL of migrants (Anderson et al. 2009; Kifle & Kleir 2008; Misago et al. 2009). Two factors are analysed in the socio-economic dimension of QOL, namely the low income group with low levels of education and the super-rich with tertiary education.

There was a statistically significant decrease ($p < 0.01$) from 2001 to 2011 in the low income group (SADC migrants earning no or low income [R0-R76 800] and those with either no or primary schooling) (Figure 4.11). Statistical significant decreases have also occurred in all the provinces from 2001 to 2011 ($p < 0.01$), with the biggest changes occurring in Limpopo, Mpumalanga and to a lesser extent in Gauteng. These results indicate an improvement in the income and education levels of SADC migrants.

No statistical significant change ($p = 0.39$) is observed from 2001 to 2011 in the super-rich with tertiary education factor in South Africa (SADC migrants with a tertiary education earning an income of R1 228 801 and higher who studied engineering, philosophy and health sciences) (Figure 4.12). Although it appears that no statistical significant changes have occurred in the provinces from 2001 to 2011 ($p = 0.09$), the Northern Cape was the only exception where a statistical significant increase occurred. Although, these results predominantly indicate no changes in the SADC migrants that are super-rich with tertiary education, at least it demonstrates that this group did not decline over time.

A decrease in the SADC migrants with low income and low levels of education and a relatively unchanged scenario with regards to the super-rich with tertiary education results in an overall improvement in the socio-economic QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. The most noticeable improvements were observed in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and the Northern Cape. Improvements in these provinces are most likely due to the strong economic performance of Gauteng, and the agricultural and mining activities occurring in Mpumalanga and Limpopo that provide more job opportunities to the SADC migrants (Stats SA 2011, 2013; Van Huyssteen et al. 2008).

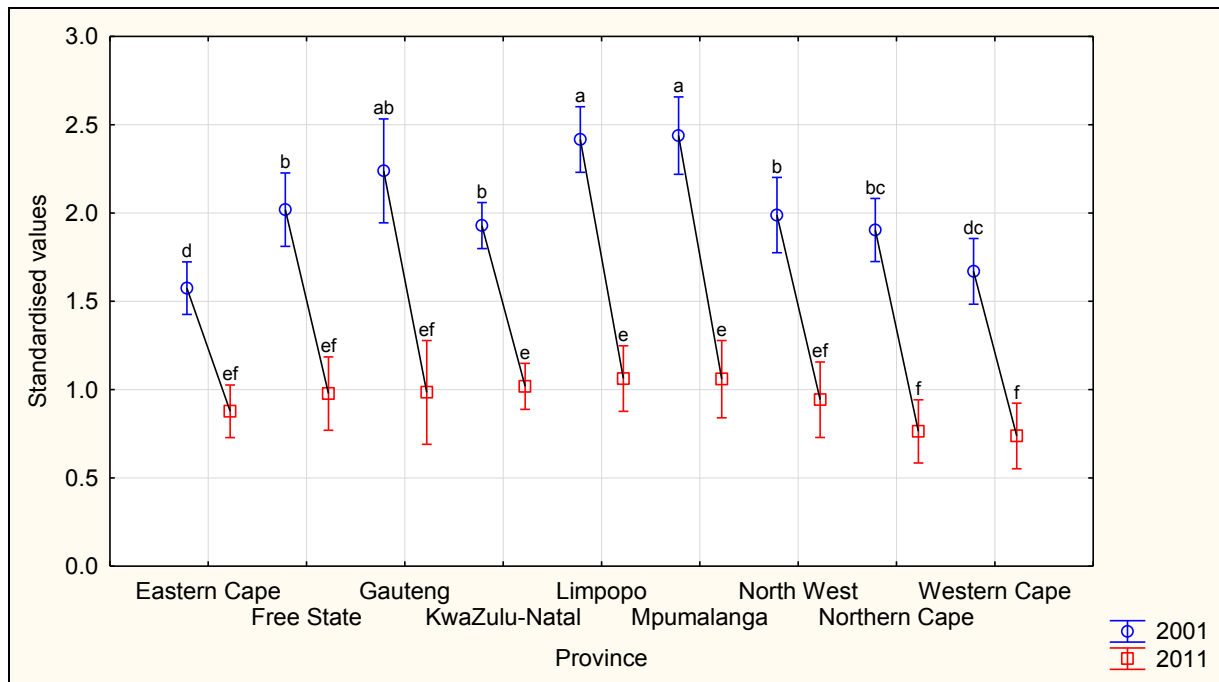


Figure 4.11 Testing statistically significant changes in the low-income group with low levels of education

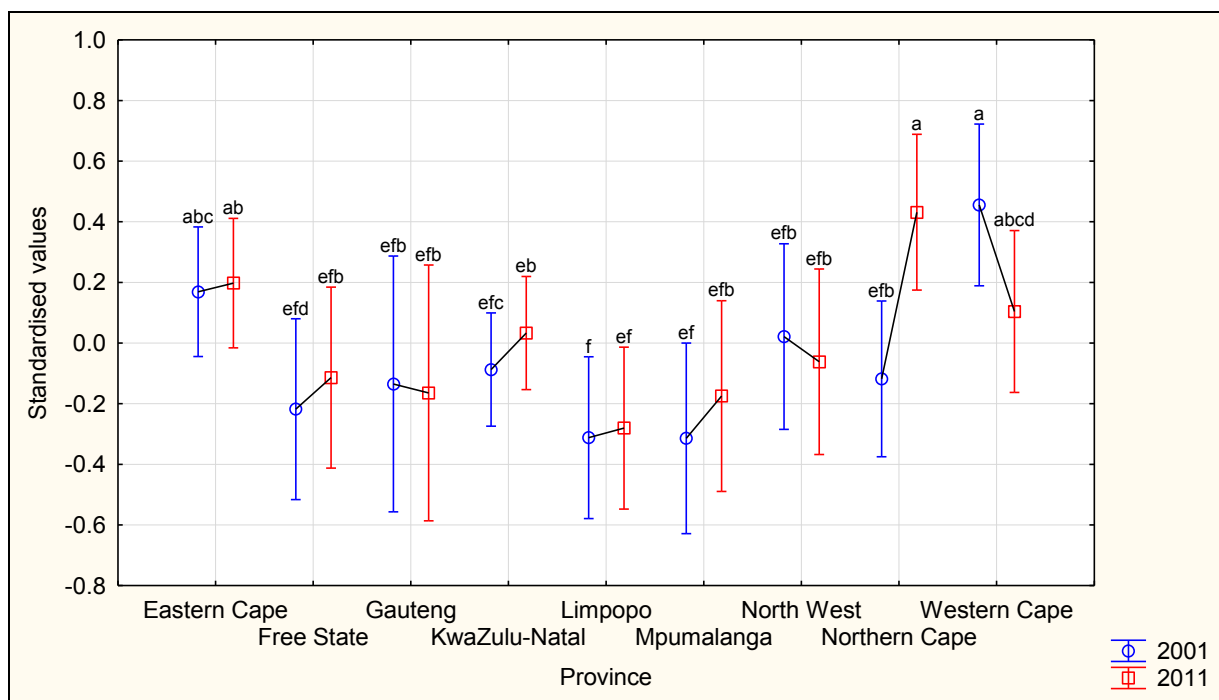


Figure 4.12 Testing statistically significant changes in the super-rich migrants with tertiary education

4.2.2 Changes in the housing conditions dimension of QOL

Residing in detached housing built from permanent materials results in an improved QOL while residing in overcrowded informal settlements built from temporary materials negatively affects QOL (Ukoha & Beamish 1997). Promoting and improving security of tenure results in improved housing and environmental conditions, implying that homeowners are more satisfied with their dwellings than renters since housing in general and homeownership positively affects QOL in settlements (Anderson et al. 2009; Erguden 2001; Mara & Landesmann 2003). There are two factors in the housing conditions dimension of QOL namely the type of housing and tenure status.

There is no statistically significant change ($p=0.20$) in the type of housing from 2001 to 2011 in South Africa (SADC migrants residing in detached dwellings, informal dwellings and owned dwellings) (Figure 4.13). Conversely, there was a statistically significant change ($p<0.01$) in some provinces, with the Free State and Gauteng increasing and the Western Cape decreasing, while the rest remained the same. This means that migrants owning detached dwellings increased in the Free State and Gauteng, resulting in an improvement in the QOL of these SADC migrants, and decreased in the Western Cape, leading to deterioration in the QOL of these SADC migrants.

From 2001 to 2011, there was a statistically significant decrease ($p<0.01$) in the tenure status of SADC migrants in South Africa (SADC migrants residing in rent-free dwellings or rented dwellings) (Figure 4.14). There were also statistically significant decreases ($p=0.02$) in all provinces, with the biggest being in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and Limpopo. These results show that more SADC migrants are residing in rented dwellings, implying that they do not have the money to purchase houses, which result in a deterioration in their QOL.

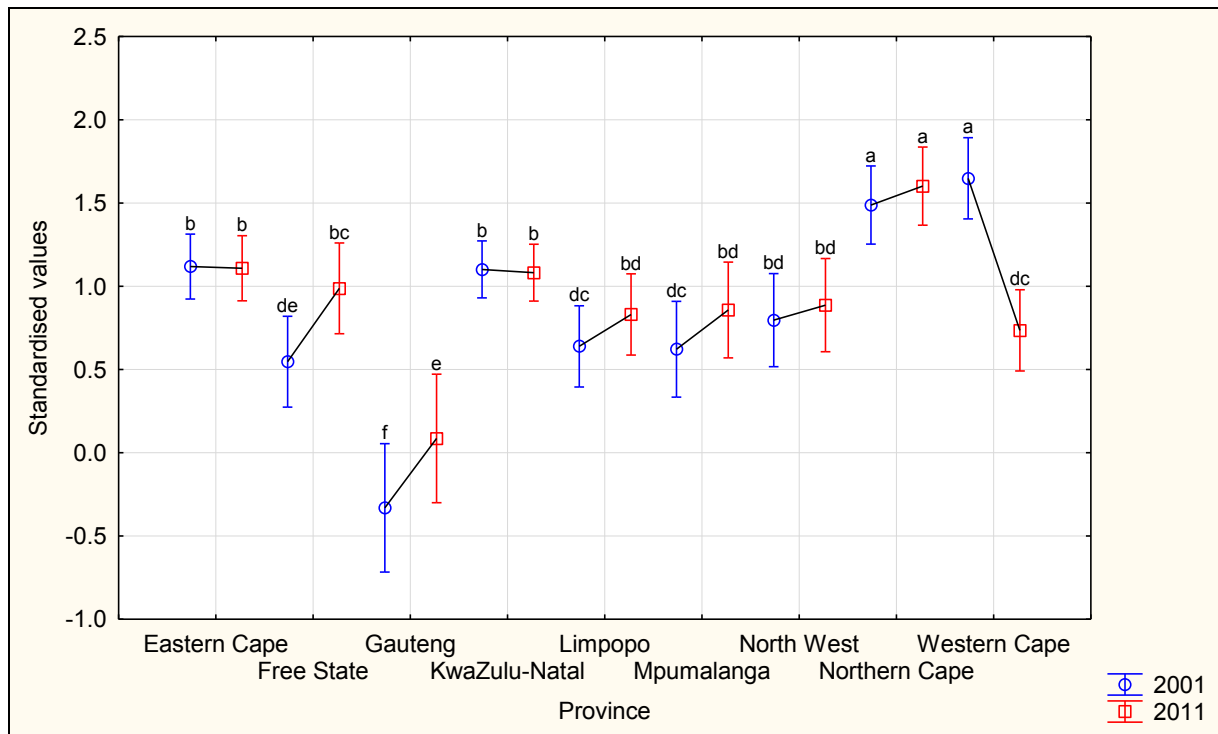


Figure 4.13 Testing statistically significant changes in the type of housing

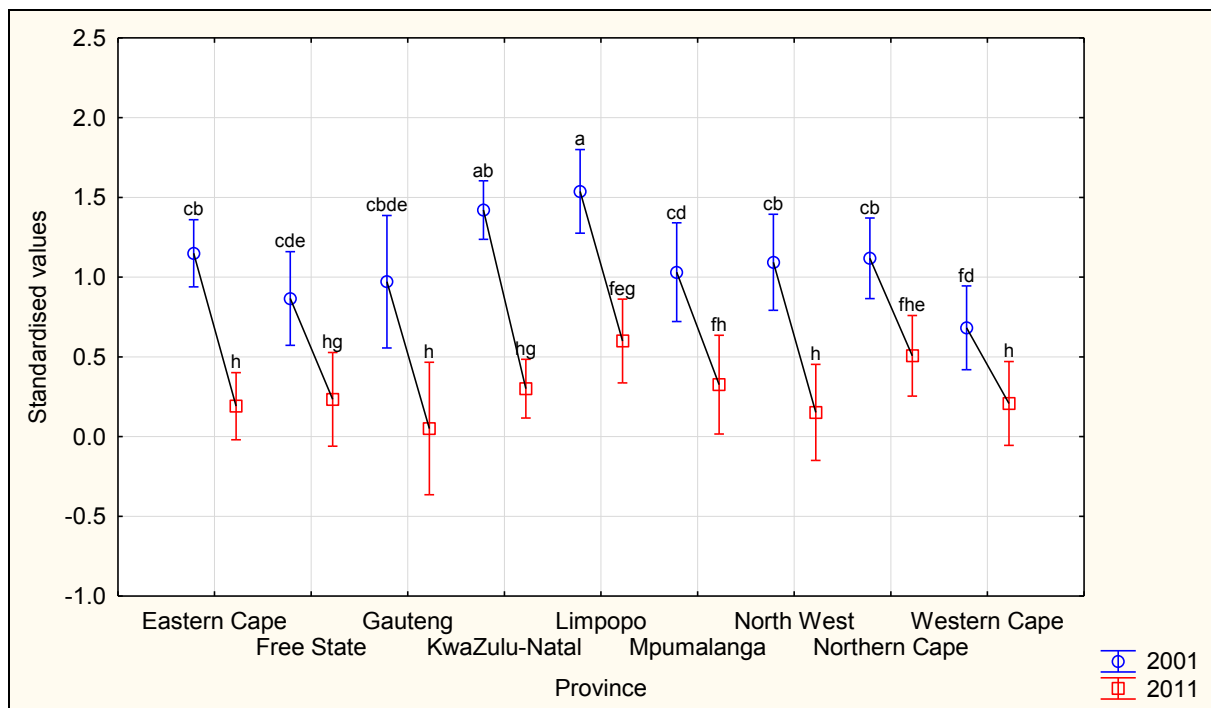


Figure 4.14 Testing statistically significant changes in the tenure status

The situation with regards to the type of housing is slightly constant in South Africa, with only the Free State and Gauteng showing increases. Gauteng has the strongest economy which allows SADC migrants to earn higher incomes and thereby own detached dwellings

(Van Huyssteen et al. 2008), while the most possible reason for the Free State showing improvements in the SADC migrants residing in detached dwellings could be attributed to SADC migrants working on farms where they are offered temporary detached dwellings by farmers – migrant workers are favoured and given first preference to housing because they are less demanding (Kleinbooi 2013). The Western Cape demonstrated decreases in the type of housing dimension of QOL, indicating that more SADC migrants own more informal dwellings which could be as a result of additional pressure on housing caused by more migrants attracted by the City of Cape Town's stronger economy (Poswa & Levy 2006). In terms of tenure status, there is a negative situation in South Africa and in all the provinces, thus indicating that most migrants rent their dwellings. Overall, the QOL of SADC migrants is thus decreasing in terms of the housing dimension.

4.2.3 Changes in the household goods dimension of QOL

Having a higher education, higher income, and formal employment potentially lead to homeownership, which in turn increases the probability of having more household goods,; resulting in a higher standard of living (Eunice Kennedy Shriver Institute 2005; Rebhun 2009). The ownership of household goods is the only factor in this dimension.

There was no statistically significant change ($p=0.20$) in the ownership of household goods from 2001 to 2011 in South Africa (computers, refrigerators, telephones and televisions) (Figure 4.15). The Free State is the only province that showed a statistical significant increase from 2001 to 2011 in the SADC migrants that owned the aforementioned household goods, which could be associated with the significant increase in SADC migrants living in detached housing which means more space for household goods (Figure 4.13). Conversely, the Western Cape is the only province indicating a statistical significant decrease in the ownership of household goods, most probably due to the Census unit records indicating a fall in the employment levels of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011, which has a direct negative effect on the income levels of SADC migrants, thus making it difficult for them to purchase household goods (Stats SA 2011). Additionally, the Western Cape demonstrated an increase in the SADC migrants residing in informal and rented dwellings (Figures 4.13 and 4.14), thus

limiting the space in their dwellings to own more household goods. These results indicate that the ownership of household goods dimension of QOL has remained relatively unchanged from 2001 to 2011, with a slight improvement in the SADC migrants' QOL in the Free State and a relatively sharp deterioration in the Western Cape.

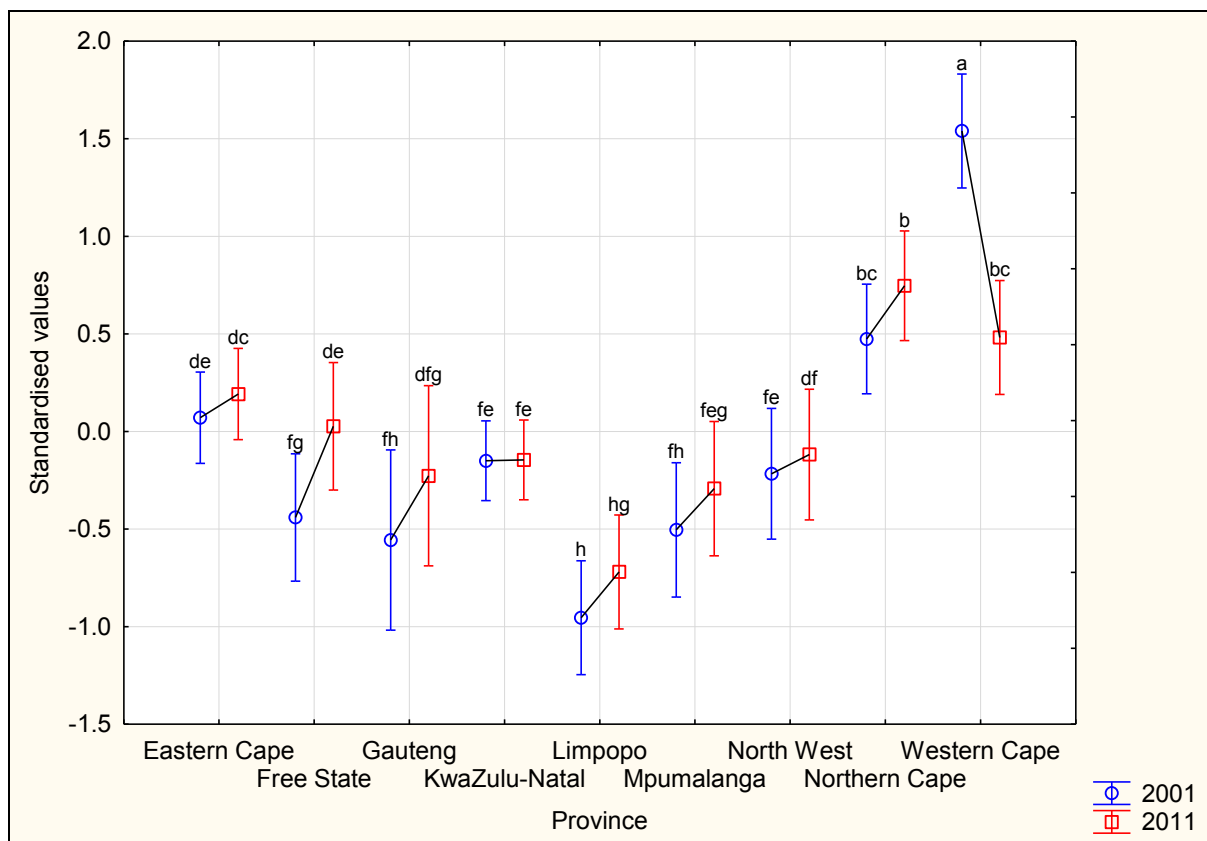


Figure 4.15 Testing statistically significant changes in the household goods

4.2.4 Changes in the service-delivery dimension of QOL

Access to municipal services like piped water, electricity and sanitation improves a household's QOL (Eunice Kennedy Shriver Institute 2005; Marques & Borges de Lima 2011). Two factors are analysed in terms of the service-delivery dimension of QOL, namely the inadequate and adequate provision of services.

A statistical significant decrease ($p < 0.01$) occurred in the inadequate provision of services from 2001 to 2011 (i.e. the SADC migrants who use wood for cooking and candles for

lighting, have no access to piped water, flush toilets or refuse dumps and instead are reliant on water from a community stand, pit latrines and their own or a community refuse dump) (Figure 4.16). The Western Cape is the only province that does not demonstrate a statistically significant change with regards to the inadequate provision of services from 2001 to 2011. The remaining provinces experienced a statistically significant decrease ($p < 0.01$) in the inadequate provision of services, with the most evident improvements occurring in KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo. These results indicate an improvement in the service-delivery situation of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011.

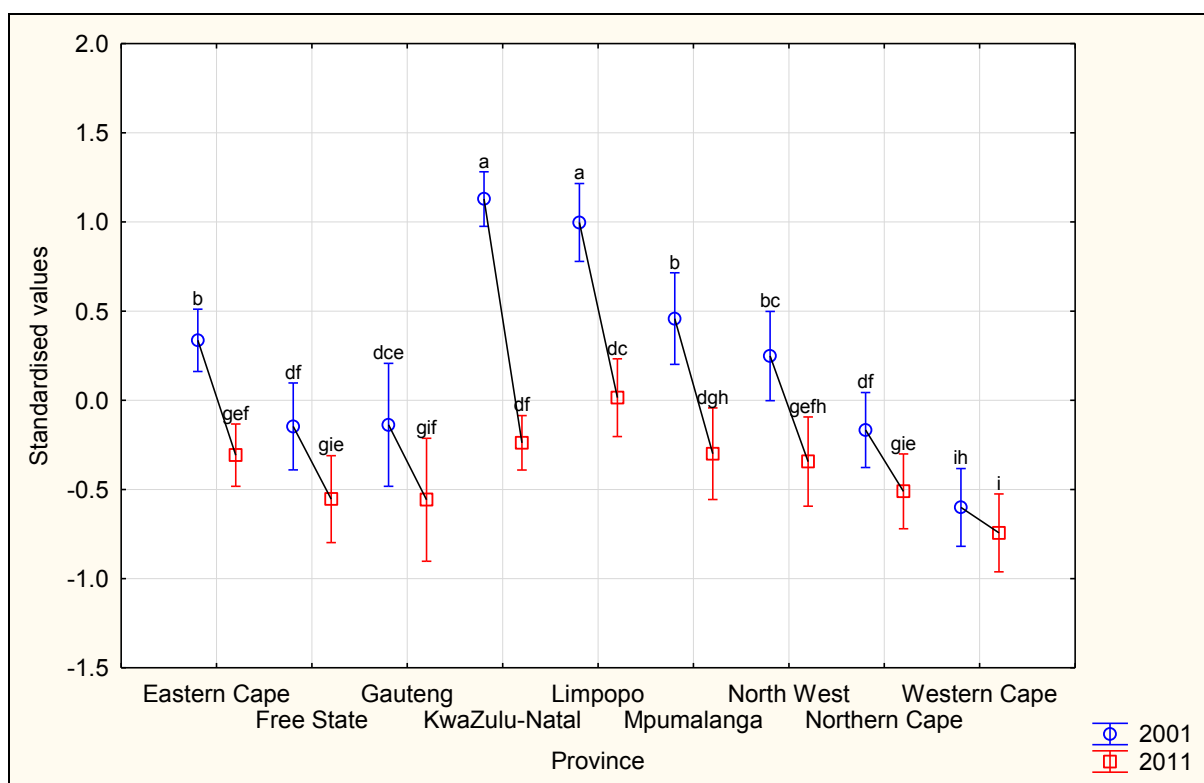


Figure 4.16 Testing statistically significant changes in the inadequate service provision

There has been no statistical significant change ($p = 0.31$) that occurred in the adequate provision of services from 2001 to 2011 (i.e. the SADC migrants who use electricity for cooking, heating and lighting, flush toilets, and have water inside their dwelling and their refuse is removed by the local authority) (Figure 4.17). Even though most of the provinces do not show any statistically significant changes ($p < 0.01$) in the adequate provision of services from 2001 to 2011, the Free State and KwaZulu-Natal experienced a statistically significant

increase, indicating an improvement in the QOL of the SADC migrants, while the Western Cape showed a sharp decline, indicating a deterioration in the QOL of the SADC migrants.

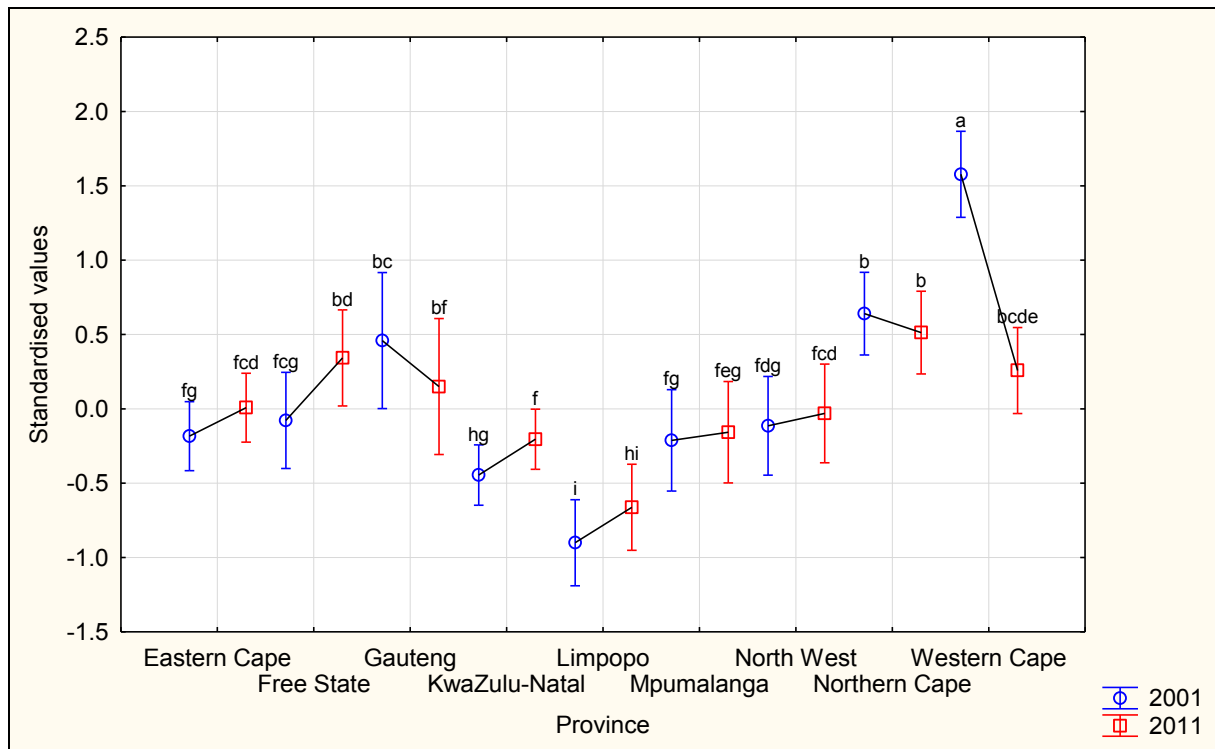


Figure 4.17 Testing statistically significant changes in the adequate service provision

A decrease in the SADC migrants with inadequate provision of services and a relatively unchanged scenario to the adequate provision of services demonstrates an overall improvement in the QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa as it relates to their service-delivery scenario. The Free State, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo experienced the most significant improvements in accessing services, which may be attributed to various redistribution policies like the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) that was aimed at increasing access to services in rural areas which lag behind the urban areas of South Africa (the abovementioned provinces contain many rural areas) (South Africa 2013).

The opposite is observed in the Western Cape that experienced no statistically significant changes in the inadequate provision of services and showed great decreases in the adequate provision of services; implying a poorer QOL for these SADC migrants in terms of service delivery. This could be attributed to the fact that the Western Cape has one of the fastest

economic growth rates over the past decade (Stats SA 2013). This results in the increased migration of SADC migrants in search of job opportunities and better living conditions. More migrants enter the City of Cape Town in search of better job opportunities and better living conditions (Poswa & Levy 2006). This adds additional pressure on existing service-delivery infrastructure, which in turn increases service-delivery backlogs and decreases the quality of the services that are delivered, resulting in a poorer QOL.

SECTION 5: CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

The research aimed to identify the changes in objective QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa and in all nine provinces from 2001 to 2011. The literature indicates that QOL is higher amongst young male permanent migrants with citizenship of the destination area, educated and higher-income migrants, and those migrants residing in decent housing with access to service delivery (De Jong et al. 2002; Marques & Borges de Lima 2011; McDonald 1998; Misago et al. 2009; Nesterko et al. 2009).

The results of this study indicate that most SADC migrants in South Africa are young black married males with a reasonable education and the majority do not have South African citizenship. Household sizes changed from single-member households to medium to large households from 2001 to 2011. These SADC migrants mostly settle in provinces with greater economic potential, including Gauteng, the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, and in other instances some settle in Mpumalanga, North West and the Free State where they could potentially be employed in the mining and agricultural and fisheries industries. Many also settle in Limpopo, since this is the gateway province from Africa to South Africa. There are some similarities between the results and literature (Crush 2005; IOM 2009; Mara & Ladesmann 2013; Misago et al. 2009; Poswa & Levy 2006).

There is an overall improvement in the socio-economic QOL of SADC migrants in South Africa from 2001 to 2011, with the most noticeable improvements being observed in Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and the Northern Cape. Contrarily, the QOL of SADC migrants is decreasing in terms of the housing dimension of QOL especially in the Western Cape. There was an overall improvement in the SADC migrants' ownership of household goods in South Africa, with the major increase being in the Free State, and the most pronounced decrease being in the Western Cape. The service-delivery dimension of QOL of SADC migrants improved in South Africa, mainly in KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo while it declined in the Western Cape.

Overall, the QOL for SADC migrants in South Africa and all the nine provinces slightly improved between 2001 and 2011, with the exception of the Western Cape that demonstrates deterioration in the QOL of SADC migrants. Service-delivery improvements in predominantly rural provinces like the Free State, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo could be attributed to redistribution programmes like ISRDP that aimed to uplift the service-delivery situation in previously marginalised rural areas. Conversely, the deterioration in the availability of economic and, housing conditions and the service-delivery situation in the Western Cape can be attributed to the sharp increase in the number of migrants which led to increased pressure on the available resources.

5.2 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This study equips the national and provincial governments with information regarding the challenges faced by SADC migrants in South Africa and in all the provinces as they strive to improve their QOL in a foreign country far away from home. To address these challenges, the government should rework their immigration policies by finding innovative ways to improve the QOL for all SADC migrants in South Africa, because their numbers indicate that they are here to stay. The QOL of SADC migrants can be improved by:

- Improving immigration policies so that the application for South African documentation and citizenship become easier and faster which ultimately improves the QOL of migrants.
- Bursaries can be provided and adult literacy programmes introduced for migrants in order to help SADC migrants attain South African education.
- Migrants must be given access to housing finance so that they can lend money to purchase houses.
- Humanitarian and civic organisations can assist the government in improving housing and municipal services in the country by putting in place policies which assist the development of low-cost decent housing and services which benefit all poor residents in South Africa including the migrants.

DIMENSION OF QOL	CHANGES IN THE QOL DIMENSION
SOCIO-ECONOMIC	
• South Africa	+
• Eastern Cape	+
• Free State	+
• Gauteng	+
• KwaZulu-Natal	+
• Limpopo	+
• Mpumalanga	+
• North West	+
• Northern Cape	+
• Western Cape	+
HOUSING CONDITIONS	
• South Africa	-
• Eastern Cape	-
• Free State	**
• Gauteng	**
• KwaZulu-Natal	-
• Limpopo	-
• Mpumalanga	-
• North West	-
• Northern Cape	-
• Western Cape	-
OWNERSHIP OF HOUSEHOLD GOODS	
• South Africa	*
• Eastern Cape	*
• Free State	+
• Gauteng	*
• KwaZulu-Natal	*
• Limpopo	*
• Mpumalanga	*
• North West	*
• Northern Cape	*
• Western Cape	-
SERVICE DELIVERY	
• South Africa	+
• Eastern Cape	+
• Free State	+
• Gauteng	+
• KwaZulu-Natal	+
• Limpopo	+
• Mpumalanga	+
• North West	+
• Northern Cape	+
• Western Cape	-

Notes: + indicates statistically significant increases in the QOL dimension from 2001 to 2011; - indicates statistically significant decreases in the QOL dimension from 2001 to 2011; * indicates that no statistically significant changes occurred from 2001 to 2011; ** indicates that the tenure status factor declined in the Free State and Gauteng, but the housing conditions factor increased. Thus overall, there were no changes in the housing conditions dimension of QOL.

Figure 5.1 Statistical significant changes per QOL factor and QOL dimension in South Africa and the provinces

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitation of this study is that the 2001 and 2011 Census datasets were not as comparable as was desired, because different questions and possible answers were included in the 2001 and 2011 Censuses, resulting in some variables only being available for 2001 or 2011. Seeing as this study wanted to determine the changes that have occurred in the QOL of SADC migrants from 2001 to 2011, only the comparable variables in the 2001 and 2011 Censuses could be used. There was also a problem with the data on the SADC migrants' country of origin. An additional limitation is that this study was only able to cover the objective QOL of SADC migrants, due to time constraints not permitting a subjective analysis as well.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research recommendations include doing the same study on the QOL of SADC migrants, but applying it to be country-specific, or on a local municipality or metropolitan level. More African countries can also be included in the study to observe the differences between the QOL of the Northern, Western, Eastern, Central and Southern African migrants in South Africa. Future studies can also include both objective and subjective QOL to also include the perceptions of the migrants themselves.

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